SOCIAL SCIENCE

MANPOWER Review

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WAR MANPOWER COMMISSION

Battle Stations for Women . . .

WE ARE ENTERING a very grim period of this war. The long, hard pull ahead will require the unstinting support and personal sacrifice of every woman as well as every man in the Nation. We have already discovered that the women of today are as sturdy, as enterprising, and as resourceful as the pioneer women who helped extend the early frontiers of this country. The changing routines, the changing responsibilities, the rationing and inconveniences, and the other adjustments of war, women are accepting gallantly. Many have gone further, and, at considerable personal sacrifice, have joined the working ranks of the Nation to speed the war's victorious end. Some of these women are on actual production lines; others have taken men's places in transportation and other war-supporting activities, and still others are in unsung, homely tasks, seemingly remote from the war.

Women, by and large, are themselves asking: How can we find jobs? How can we train for them? Some of these, housewives and mothers, with sons and husbands in war production jobs, have a battle station in their own homes—keeping their men fit and on the job, and protecting the health and well-being of children who are the Nation's future reserve of strength. But there are countless other women who are free to take full-time jobs outside of their homes, if they will. True, it may involve a "revolutionary" change in their way of life, but their willingness to bear that change makes their contribution all the greater. Pride and distaste and disinclination must not be defeatists' weapons when war work needs to be done. Every woman who can must go out and take her place with the working millions.

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The Women's Advisory Committee of the War Manpower Commission, whose work it is to advise the Commission on the possible wartime use of the skills, talents, and abilities of women is anxious that steps be taken to help these women to a clearer understanding of what a "war job" really is, and to help them find their "battle stations" whether in the laundry, the shop, the factory, the farm, or in the professions. Of course, no final or arbitrary blueprint can be produced pointing out to each woman her proper niche, because the potentialities of women are as unlimited as they are varied. One thing that can be done, however, is to clear up confusion as to the importance of work in wartime. Nothing is inconsequential. Every kind of productive or useful work, no matter how drab or humble, figures in the cumulative national war effort.

We have lately been hearing much of locally needed activities. They are so called because their disappearance in certain localities would cause a severe disruption in home life, in community life—a disruption that would have its eventual repercussions in war industry. These services are so handicapped by severe labor turn-over that WMC has taken cognizance of their plight and has put them on a par with essential activities so far as entitlement to priority in recruitment of workers is concerned. The matter would be relatively simple were it one of referring applicants already registered in the local USES offices. The complication, however, is that a new supply of workers must be found for these crippled industries. And where can we look for them more than in the group that constitutes our greatest labor reserve—the women of America. Our problem now is to make women *want* to take these jobs. Thousands of retired women must return to work outside the home. Older women and women who have never worked before must make their hands and energies available. Many women must step forward to extra tasks which have not been part of their normal lives. Those who take employment either full time or part time, in laundries, shops, grocery stores, hotels, restaurants, and cafeterias, performing necessary services upon which great numbers of workers rely, are making a practicable application of patriotism. Women who take jobs as telegraph messengers or radio technicians are maintaining the efficiency of our war communication system; women working as ticket takers, baggage clerks, as bus, truck, and taxi drivers, as plane dispatchers and stewardesses, as track workers and foremen are maintaining our transportation system; women in farm jobs, in canning factories, at food counters, in kitchens, in restaurants are feeding not America alone, but her allies.

Other women, I am sure, want to help and need but to be told how and where they can find their battle stations. When women respond in sufficient numbers to man our locally needed activities, an important war job will be in skillful hands. Its effects will be exhibited in the improved morale of all workers, especially those speeding the production of equipment for far-flung combat fronts. The shot that ends the war conceivably might get there because some woman back home performed a homely task that started the day right for a worker who gave his job that extra something that got the ammunition there on time.

—MARGARET A. HICKEY, *Chairman, Women's Advisory Committee, War Manpower Commission.*

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Manpower REVIEW

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AT Press TIME

WMC acts to increase manpower for war production, control transfer and turn-over—Fathers hear call to draft—Centralized recruitment for shipyards—Coal and wood standards.

¶ Following the announcement on August 3 that fathers would be inducted beginning with October, WMC took several steps to (a) hold essential workers on war-useful jobs if they are so employed now, (b) assure transfer of workers to jobs aiding in the war effort, and (c) supply men needed for the armed forces without impairing war production. The steps are:

1. Establishment of a list of 149 critical occupations covering skills urgently needed in the war effort. Workers possessing such skills must get into war industry or supporting civilian activities by October 1 or lose further claim to Selective Service occupational deferment. (Local Board Memorandum 115A.) To insure accurate channeling of workers with these critical skills to the most urgent war jobs, provision is made for their hiring only on referral by or with the consent of the USES. (Regulation 7.)

2. Instructions to Selective Service local boards to give greater consideration to occupational deferment. In determining the "replaceability" of a worker, the boards are to consider the actual and immediate effect of his induction on vital production and are to take into account not merely the national shortage of his skill, but available replacements for even unskilled workers and current local shortages of skilled or unskilled labor. Closer collaboration is provided between the local Selective Service boards and the local USES offices in making these determinations. (Local Board Memorandum 115.)

3. Establishment of new minimum standards for permitting the transfer of civilian workers from job to job. These standards are based on experience under employment stabilization plans and will be written into all such area plans by October 15. They are intended to stimulate transfer from less-essential to more-essential war jobs and to reduce the unnecessary shifting of workers from job to job which has pyramided turn-over and interfered with vital production in many plants. (Regulation 7.) At the same time, broad powers to determine when a transfer is in the interest of the war effort are given to local and regional offices. (Regulations 4 and 7.)

4. Extension of the list of nondeferable activities and occupations to 50 occupations and 58 activities, providing that all men of military age must transfer from such jobs or be placed first on the list for induction by local boards. This will insure that the first fathers to be drafted will be those who are contributing least to the war effort. (Local Board Memorandum 181.)

Commenting on the manner in which the program would be put into effect, Chairman McNutt said:

"First, the new critical list does not displace the existing essential lists of activities and occupations. The purpose of the new list is to search out particular skills and to see that they are so employed as to speed victory, whether their employment is in industry or the military services.

"Second, the nondeferable list is a limited list. . . . It represents types of employment which plainly are remote from the war effort and therefore cannot compete with the armed services or war production for necessary manpower.

"Third, the provisions governing the transfer of civilian workers as outlined in Regulation 7 are not greatly dissimilar to those applied in most local employment stabilization plans today. Moreover, they do not apply to any person until acted upon by the Area Manpower Director and incorporated into the local stabilization plan. . . .

"Fourth, these actions are based upon the best practice of local boards and local employment stabilization agreements. They represent a codification of policies which it is known from experience will contribute most to maintaining maximum production and at the same time permit military calls to be filled on schedule.

"Fifth, it should be noted that between essential activities and nondeferable activities are many activities which are not classified. Similarly, between the lists of critical and essential occupations and the nondeferable occupations there are many occupations which have not been singled out either as directly

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supporting the war effort or as being nondeferable. Thus, lawyers, bankers, taxi drivers, and many in other fields are not included in any of the lists. They are still subject to the rules as they apply in the ordinary chance order of call."

¶The induction of fathers has become necessary because of the increasing shortages of armed forces and industry manpower.

It is estimated that about 300,000 (1 out of every 22) of the 6,559,000 fathers in III-A as of July 1 will be called to the colors by the end of the year. The actual number, however, will depend on the number of men needed to fill monthly quotas after other specified groups have been exhausted. In order that the number may be held to a minimum, local Selective Service boards have been instructed to comb the ranks of men previously examined and placed in IV–F and other deferred classifications and to sift out registrants who may be qualified for duty under relaxed standards. Thus fathers in III-A will not be reclassified as a group, but individually as they are needed. The reclassification rests with the local boards, who will review the records of registrants according to their order numbers and without regard to the number and age of children. Occupational status, physical fitness, and hardship factors, in the order given, will determine reclassification under the new directive.

Fathers when reclassified in I–A or I–A–O (conscientious objectors available for noncombatant military service only) will not be asked to report for induction as long as volunteers and other specified groups are available to fill the local quotas. Among the latter are the fathers placed in I–A and I–A–O because they left an essential agricultural occupation or endeavor without the permission of their local boards, or because they engaged in nondeferable activities.

¶Because the labor needs of the Pacific and Gulf Coast shipyards are inordinately heavy and urgent, a 9-region recruitment campaign is being conducted. In June it yielded approximately 6,000 men, drawn from scattered sections of the country, and without detriment to other essential activities.

¶Coal and wood dealers in labor shortage areas have now been given their particular set of standards designed to pare down operations to the barest minimum. Customers, under the standards, are expected to be reasonable in their demands and considerate and fair in their practices; in throwing a cordon of limitations around deliveries, types of service, etc., the coal and wood dealers were told that "a labor shortage may be said to exist when dealers can show an average backlog of unfilled orders for solid fuels sufficiently great to threaten seriously the ability of consumers to obtain an adequate supply of solid fuels."

CRITICAL INDUSTRY LABOR SHORTAGES

ACUTE MANPOWER SHORTAGES are hampering several industries, many of them small in comparison with aircraft and shipbuilding which are more consistently in the limelight, but all of vital importance to the war production program. The number of workers needed by these critical industries is small, but their importance to the war program is vastly out of proportion to their number. If these manpower shortages are not curtailed, they will give rise to bottlenecks which may threaten the entire war production program. Critical labor shortages exist in:

Copper
Molybdenum
Zinc
Aluminum
Lumber
Fluorspar and Mica
Northwest Coal
Eastern Iron Ore
Castings
Jute
Fish and Camouflage Netting

The seriousness of the labor shortages in these industries presents one of the most challenging problems WMC has ever faced. All local offices of the USES and area and regional offices of WMC have been urged to give the highest priority to the recruitment and referral of workers to the industries on this list. Regulations 4 and 7 and the lists of critical and nondeferable occupations are part of a program to alleviate these shortages. These are only tools, however, and the success of the program will depend on the energy and intelligence which USES and WMC personnel, local Selective Service boards, and communities apply to the solution of the problems of critical industry labor shortages.

BEATING THE DRUMS FOR LOCALLY NEEDED WORKERS

WMC Calling All Women!

IN THE BUSINESS of world war, in which the American Nation is so deeply immersed, we are finding that there is no unimportant service among the thousands of tasks that are being performed in the name of victory. The production of war matériel and ultimate victory are inextricably woven in with the maintenance of food counters, laundries, dry-cleaning establishments, domestic service, and other home-front services. The cook and the waitress keeping the worker well fed, the laundress washing work and other clothing are in there pitching for victory just as surely as, if less dramatically than, workers on the production lines or soldiers on the combat fronts. Eliminate these unsung services in wartime, and disaster confronts us, as time and events are now proving.

Early in the war, Uncle Sam underscored as *essential* certain outstanding activities directly involved in war production. They are easy to recognize as *absolutely necessary* to the war's successful prosecution. They are, without equivocation, "war jobs." By reason of that fact they have enjoyed priority in the allocation and recruitment of manpower. Needless to say, they have been getting the cream of the labor crop.

Now comes our less spectacular and less captivating group of industries, suing for a measure of consideration in the realm of recruitment, and making a good case for themselves in that even the least task is an important war job. They are the relatively obscure home-front trades and services which became the stepchildren of manpower apportionment. Now these trades and services are coming into their own with the designation "locally needed." By this name they are being placed on a par with essential industries so far as aggressive recruitment of workers in their behalf is concerned. In their improved status they will enjoy all the protection accorded essential industries under manpower stabilization plans.

How have the trades and services come by this "locally needed" designation? This group of activities has been subjected to labor drains since the earliest days of defense preparation. When industries were tuning up for lend-lease production, it became evident that it would be necessary to include among the legions of new hires for their expanding plants a high percentage of women. The employers, however, showed considerable hesitation before agreeing to share work opportunities heretofore believed to be the exclusive birthright of men. Particularly, they did not want to be handicapped in their operations with totally "green" women, but insisted on the right to seek women accustomed at least to the discipline of working. Thus the first group of women drawn into munitions activities were women who were already accustomed to working with their hands. Where did such a labor source exist in greater numbers than in the civilian trades and services which traditionally utilized a preponderance of women on their staffs? For a long time jobs in the trades and services were pretty much the easiest for unskilled girls and women to pick up. As a result of working in these activities, they learned to stand long hours on their feet, to use their fingers dexterously, and to accustom themselves to a steady work day routine. In other words, they learned *how to work.*

As for the women themselves, there was great incentive to leave these trades and services, which have always been low-wage and long-hour industries. War production opened the door to improved opportunities with salaries almost doubled in some

ONE OF THE LESS CONSPICUOUS GROUPS that is especially hard hit, and which, if it closes down, will have a crippling effect on practically every household, is the repair services—the "Seabees" of the home front. They are the young men who are called in at all hours to put the electric refrigerator, the electrical stove, and other electrical household appliances back in serviceable condition. These services are, however, a product of the last 18 or 20 years, so that the persons in these repair jobs are comparatively young men. Many of them, the single ones, have been inducted, and the residue, mostly married, will be drafted when fathers are called. This almost complete evacuation of a trade is literally throwing the repair shops and housewives into a state of panic—at a time when new appliances cannot be purchased and factory repairs are unavailable. To utilize women in these jobs would call for training, since repair services are a specialized group. But women can be trained and should be used for these jobs.

instances. Little wonder then that there should be an almost wholesale trek from the trades and services to the early war production jobs.

For a time the gaps in the labor force of these trades and services did not appear serious. Like individuals, they could manage for a while "to get along." It had not occurred to them that the time had come for adjustments in wage rates and working conditions—an adjustment which would have tended to curb the excessive turn-over. Employers still had recourse to a well-stocked cupboard of marginal workers, including minority groups, and they elected to continue to draw on them. But eventually this supply was drained, and when the advent of war further increased labor demands, the impact on the civilian trades and services really made their labor problem acute. A move to meet competition with wage increases made some headway but was held substantially in check during the period between the hold-the-line order and the Byrnes directive of May 12. As in other industries, increases were permitted to bring wages up to 40 cents an hour; however, any increases above that figure had to have the approval of the War Labor Board.

Trades and Services All Affected

The operating problems and work loads of all trades and services were, of course, increased by the upheavals of war. In hundreds of war centers, restaurants filled up and long queues waited on the sidewalks to be served; dry-cleaning establishments were choked with garments, and military uniforms by the thousands added to their burdens. In some instances, signs appeared in their windows stating that "Dry-cleaning service is available to civilians on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday only." Hotels, boarding houses, retail shops, banks, and other community services all reported difficulties galore, with the number of their patrons soaring, their facilities or expansion thereof limited, and their working staffs decreasing, if not actually in numbers, then in standard of performance on the job.

But most beleaguered of all the trades and services were the laundries. The pattern of their difficulties followed a particularly vicious circle. In the first place their staffs ordinarily were comprised of 70 percent women and 30 percent men, the latter in the heavier operations and such jobs as driver-salesmen. These were subjected not only to drains by Selective Service inductions but by war production as well. In the excessive turn-over among women, workers of lesser and lesser skill had to be hired. As a result, the quality and quantity of work suffered; the backlog of dirty linen piled up, with reports of thousands of tons accumulating in individual laundries; pick-up and delivery intervals grew longer; and customers became disgruntled and discouraged. Mrs. War Worker stayed home to do the family wash or tried to do it herself after working hours. A woman holding down a full-time war job and at the same time attempting to manage her home on a business-as-usual basis is a "house divided against itself," and it didn't take much foresight to realize that in the long run it was war production that would suffer. Not only would absenteeism among women cut down war production output, but peak production would be retarded because other women needed to replace men could not be expected to leave the home to take war jobs if they could not depend on outside help from the trades and services. Moreover, when schedules of pick-up and delivery are slowed down and the family can't get its wash back promptly, it has to go out and purchase a longer-lasting supply of linens—a drain on the family purse and an added burden on hard-pressed textile industries. For a run of 2 weeks—the average interval between pick-up and delivery nowadays—father has to have a supply of 28 shirts, 14 to wear while 14 are in the laundry, allowing him 1 shirt a day. The women of the family might well argue that under all these circumstances it would pay them to stay at home.

The solution to the problem of locally needed activities seems to be along a 3-avenue approach: (1) aggressive recruitment for workers; (2) economy of operations within plants, combined with appeals to customers to economize on their needs for maintenance services; and (3) a dynamic program of public education designed to reach women and persuade them to enter trade and service jobs as a patriotic step.

The first of these was initiated when the War Manpower Commission delegated authority to the Area Manpower Director to declare "locally needed" a nonmanufacturing activity, primarily local in character, which is required to maintain services necessary to the health, welfare, and safety of an area and which cannot meet the necessary minimum demand for its services without special protection. When so designated, the activity is given the same status as an essential activity under employment stabilization plans. It also permits the local USES office to give the activity the same service as is accorded to essential activities. As the laundry situation became more

tense early in July, WMC took further action and extended a measure of protection against withdrawal of workers from laundries in areas where this service had not been declared locally needed.

This action occurred after WMC and the Office of Civilian Requirements of WPB became alarmed over the number of linen maintenance services reported to be on the brink of collapse. Intensive recruitment campaigns were ordered to attempt to get workers to meet minimum requirements of the various localities. The needs of the trades and services and the importance of these services to the war program were in every case to be publicized, local offices were instructed to refrain from recruitment that would further drain these activities of workers, and steps were taken to improve wages and working conditions and to add incentives such as night-shift bonuses, paid vacations, and the like.

A second approach that was to bring a partial solution of labor difficulties was from the angle of adjustments within the services themselves. For the most hard-pressed group, the laundries, a set of wartime standards for laundry operations was worked out jointly by WMC and the Office of Civilian Requirements. These standards, the result of studies instituted months before in consultation with all branches of the textile maintenance services, are designed to accomplish two objectives: (1) to put the textile maintenance services on a rock-bottom, first-things-first basis; and (2) to enable them to give adequate essential service to more people with the labor force they have or are likely to get in view of over-all labor requirements. The latter was to be accomplished by making more efficient use of existing personnel, making adjustments in services and operations having to do with types of wash (wet, rough-dry, etc.), ironing, starching, packaging, folding, and the elimination of repair services such as sewing on buttons, rebinding of blankets, and the like.

The public, too, was to be appealed to and their cooperation asked in furthering a more economical use of available laundry facilities. Hotels, restaurants, railroads, boarding houses, tourist camps, and homes were asked to reduce their laundry requirements to a minimum by limiting the changes of bed linen, use of towels, and use of table linens. The request went further and asked housewives to reduce the use of articles that require laundering, to launder small items at home, to use the quick laundry services such as wet wash and rough-dry where possible, and otherwise to comply with instructions designed to effect manpower savings in sorting, marking, and pick-up and delivery operations.

Solution in the Main Leads to Women

The tendency is to avoid hiring men between the ages of 18 and 45 for jobs in laundries and other locally needed activities, except under certain restrictions, because of the Selective Service factor. In the last analysis, therefore, the soundest solution to the labor problems of the trades and services in general lies in getting more women to come out of the home and take jobs. While hundreds of thousands of women have poured into the labor force and are giving an excellent account of themselves, they are not reporting to the extent or in the variety needed in this time of crisis. Thousands of retired women must return to work outside the home. Older women and women who have never worked must make their hands and energies available. Many women must step forward to extra tasks which have not been part of their normal lives.

Lack of confidence, or indifference due to lack of information, or perhaps prejudice on the part of men in the family keeps some women from trying their hands at outside war work. But when told of the amazing number of jobs that women can and are doing, how they can adapt their home talents to outside work, women begin to feel the pull of war jobs. They will, however, need information and guidance, and for this purpose WMC is cooperating with the Office of War Information in an undertaking to acquaint women of the many small and large tasks in and outside of factories, many on a part-time basis, in which they can render a patriotic service to their country.

The OWI Womanpower Campaign is designed (1) to awaken the consciousness of all women to the need for their full- or part-time services in the war program, (2) to publicize job and training opportunities, and (3) in the main, to rally women around the locally needed services in their own localities.

The appeal to women has been sent out; the Nation has declared its urgent need for supplementing its manpower for the needs of total and global war. The War Manpower Commission is calling all women. Will they respond in the proportions of a rising tide, or when the war is over will they have to be written off as a feminine footnote to manpower? It is a safe guess that, viewed through the post-war lens, the wonder will be not that *so few women pitched in*, but that *so few sat it out.*

D. C. Averts Laundry Crisis

. . . *By*

MYRA CALLIS AND ETHEL STARR

Associate Recruitment Officers, United States Employment Service of the District of Columbia

WASHINGTON, Saturday, June 26, 1943. The war-swollen population of the city swelters in a record-breaking heat wave. War workers, faced with the necessity for two and even three changes of clothing a day, are told that laundry deliveries will be curtailed because of a manpower shortage. Haberdasheries report that the run on men's shirts has almost depleted their stocks; department stores wonder how long their supply of sheets can last. One rumor has it that a local hospital has been forced to shut down because it cannot obtain clean linen. The heat has brought the long stewing laundry crisis to a boil.

The phone rings—it's one of the largest laundries in town stating that if it cannot obtain laundry workers by Monday, it will be crippled. We tell him to keep calm, while we recruit some laundry workers. By Monday we are referring workers to him, by Tuesday we are referring more laundry workers to other establishments, and by the end of the week the city's laundry crisis has been averted.

How did we do it? That calls for a bit of history and local background. A typical boom city, Washington's population has swelled from 900,000 in 1940 to 1,300,000 in 1943—a 43-percent increase. A substantial number of the people here work for the Government, either as white-collar civilians, or as members of the armed forces. Many of them live in hotels, rooms, or apartments, have no laundry facilities, and must "send their clothing out." Add to this the wash of the expanding restaurants, hospitals, beauty parlors, and barber shops, and you see what a terrific burden the laundries have to carry.

Washington laundries have tried many methods to conserve manpower; reducing deliveries from twice to once a week; cutting out overlapping zones, competitive routes, special deliveries and pick-ups, hand ironing and starching, and fancy packaging and folding; stopping solicitation of new accounts; transferring accounts from one laundry to another to reduce mileage; and refusing to accept winter clothing for dry cleaning. Some laundries have refused to accept any civilian clothing.

The number of commercial laundry workers has jumped from 4,500 in 1940 to 12,000 in 1943. Even this increase and the curtailments in service have not been enough to cope with the problem.

Seeing the gathering of the storm clouds, the Director of the USES for the District of Columbia and the Area Manpower Director called a meeting of the local laundry association on June 10. A subcommittee of three laundry representatives was appointed to continue discussions. It met the next day with the two Directors and agreed to a survey of the laundry industry by a group of labor utilization and training people. After investigating what was considered a cross section of the industry—four laundries of different sizes—the investigating group presented the following program to the subcommittee:

1. That wage rates, now beginning at 32.9 cents per hour be raised to a minimum of 40 cents per hour, these substandard wages being the biggest obstacle to recruitment and any reduction in absenteeism and turn-over.
2. That training methods be reinstated. This would enable low-paid beginners to advance rapidly to higher-paying positions and would in part solve the wage problem.
3. That recruitment techniques be refined. For instance, part-time workers should be recruited whenever full-time workers are not obtainable, especially for the unskilled jobs.
4. That working conditions and utilization of labor be improved. The heat in laundries is terrific, especially during the summer months when the work load reaches its peak. Our people suggested that night shifts be instituted to allow some workers to escape the day-time heat, holes be cut through walls to admit more air, and fans be placed in the hottest places. Rest periods were found to vary widely from laundry to laundry, some allowing none at all, others allowing 5 minutes twice a day. Longer and more frequent rest periods were recommended. Further, handicapped persons could be hired to take over some of the jobs which strong, able-bodied persons were now holding and which could be done by a physically disabled worker.

The subcommittee pointed out that: (1) wage rates for beginners could be raised to 40 cents, but this would bring them into the same wage bracket with more skilled workers whose wages cannot be raised without permission from the War Labor Board; (2) wage increases would have to be accompanied by price increases approved by OPA; and (3) TWI programs had been tried and found to be very successful (under them, training time for ironers had been

reduced from 2 weeks to 2 days) but had been abandoned because of heavy turn-over of supervisors. However, it accepted the program for further study.

Came the frantic call on that Saturday morning. Telling the laundry association that it would recruit the needed workers provided the association did its part in trying to push its end of the program, the D. C. Employment Center went into action. We immediately sent letters to 1,500 women who were registered in our active and inactive files as seeking casual domestic or unskilled work, requesting that they report for interviews on Monday morning. Within an hour we had secured the cooperation of the manager of a chain of 14 movie houses who agreed to make an oral plea for workers between features. Before evening we had obtained agreements from each of the 6 local radio stations to broadcast 1-minute spot announcements for workers at frequent intervals.

On Sunday, recruitment officers scoured the town for workers. They obtained the cooperation of churches which announced the need for laundry workers from their pulpits, and engaged in a door-to-door campaign.

By 8 o'clock Monday morning the first of 350 respondents to our plea had arrived and were being referred. By noon the laundry whose call had started the drive was functioning once more and we were referring workers to other laundries. Within 3 days we had referred 193 laundry workers.

The success of this campaign was due to two factors: (1) the patriotic appeal which awoke many persons to the connection of laundries with the war, and (2) the stressing of the dire need of the laundries for workers (many applicants stated that they didn't know the laundries were in such a fix). One very encouraging note is the return of absentees to their jobs, due, we hope, to our plugging the war aspect of laundry work.

For the moment we have halted our recruitment activities, awaiting action by the laundry owners. If they carry out their part of the program, we are confident that the laundry manpower situation here can be cleared up.

THE INSEPARABLES OF WORK AND PLAY

ALL WORK AND NO PLAY makes a poor war worker, is the conclusion of the Recreation Division of the Federal Security Agency in a newly released summary of actual experience of local communities in providing leisure-time activities for war workers. Under the title *Spare Time—A War Asset for War Workers*, the report analyzes the experiences of war plants and communities in developing recreational opportunities and declares that recreation is a hard-boiled necessity in these times, because it is an investment in our No. 1 asset—human resources.

Stating that although recreational programs are healthiest when plan and initiative spring from local roots, the report says that Federal, State, and local Governments are partners in this obligation toward war workers.

"Wages are not the lone incentive needed to keep workers at the peak of production," says the report. "Facts prove that. Even patriotism isn't enough. They must have some chance to be human beings, have places to go in their time off, to entertain and be entertained. . . . People don't work in places and under conditions where they are robbed of these normal interests, or where their families and children are deprived of them. . . . Women, many of them new to industry, often find the strain of factory work even greater than men. . . . With more and more women replacing men, the need for recreation is increased."

The Federal Security Agency's Recreation Division stands ready to assist communities in developing recreational programs. Operating through a field staff, the Division "assists communities in strengthening their recreation program, in mobilizing all possible local resources, in aiding with standards for recreational personnel and facilities, and in securing supplementary assistance when the burden of war activity overtaxes the community."

Britain Protects Laundries

. . . *By*

STANLEY S. MOSS

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THE BRITISH laundry industry now comprises roughly about 2,500 laundries and 190,000 workers, mainly women. Even in the pre-war period it had one of the highest labor turn-over rates—a condition that was traceable in large measure to the long-standing unfavorable wage rates and working conditions which typified the industry. Minimum wages and standard working conditions have been controlled by the Laundry Trade Board since 1909. By June 1940 the Trade Board rate had not been increased sufficiently to compensate for the marked increase in the cost of living. In laundries under collective agreements, however, higher wage rates more adequately took account of this rise. In the considerable unorganized segment of the industry, wage rates became increasingly inadequate.

At first Britain gave laundries a nonessential designation, but by early 1941 the laundry industry was struggling with an alarming labor shortage provoked by these wartime developments: (1) higher wage rates of war production industries had induced many laundry workers to transfer; (2) male laundry workers had been freely conscripted for military service; and (3) women laundry workers were encouraged and later compelled to transfer to more essential tasks. This combination of circumstances brought the country face to face with a threatened breakdown of laundry services, especially in strategic military and war production centers. The British Government, compelled to take steps to circumvent this calamity, made a three-way regulatory attack on the problem through the worker, the employer, and the consumer.

Regulation of the Worker

The first regulatory step discouraged further transfer of laundry workers to essential employment. In March 1941, local employment offices were instructed to exercise the utmost care in transferring women from laundries to essential work in other industries. Transfers were to be countenanced only if they did not impede laundry operations. Within 2 months of this action, laundry was declared to be an essential civilian service, and the employment service was deterred from indiscriminate compulsory transfer of laundry personnel to so-called more essential work. This prohibition, however, did not prevent voluntary transfer to other fields of employment.

Control of the separation of workers in the laundry industry was introduced as a result of pressure brought by laundry operators to apply the provisions of the Essential Work Order of March 1941 to laundry services. Under the terms of this order, workers were not permitted to leave their jobs without the permission of the employment service but in return were guaranteed a minimum wage. In reply to this demand the Minister of Labour and National Service took the position that before individual laundries could be "scheduled" under this order and workers "frozen" on their jobs, working conditions would have to be improved and wages revised upwards more nearly to approximate a standard prevailing for similar work in war industries.

As a result of this position, for workers who were "frozen" on their jobs, wages were revised upwards above the union rate to take account of increased living costs. Workers in laundries not covered by the Essential Work Order received either the trade union rate or the lower Trade Board minimum rate, depending on whether or not they were employed under a collective agreement.

In October 1941 the order was applied to laundries serving the armed forces, and later, during 1942 and early 1943, coverage was extended to laundries serving workers in key essential industries.

In some instances, laundry operators were antagonistic to the provisions of the Essential Work Order, particularly the requirement that a guaranteed wage had to be paid based on the highest weekly wage rate ever paid in the industry. A group of operators covered by the order attempted to penalize workers persistently late or absent without permission by calculating their weekly earnings on the basis of the lower trade union wage rate. The employers justified this procedure on the grounds that any person late or absent was disqualified from the benefits of the Essential Work Order. In March 1942 the laundry work-

ers' union carried the case to a National Conciliation Board, which decided that laundry operators could not change the Essential Work Order wage rate and directed operators to report cases of indiscipline of workers to the employment service for further action and remedy.

Thus, at present, manpower in the laundry industry covered by the Essential Work Order is regulated by the following controls:

1. The worker may not leave his job and his employer may not discharge him without the consent of the employment service.
2. The employer must pay a guaranteed minimum wage based on a worker's normal weekly earnings as long as he is available for work, even though work is not available.
3. The employer may not suspend a worker for disciplinary reasons for more than 3 days. Such suspension is subject to appeal by the worker to an independent local appeal board. If the suspension is not considered justified, the employer must reimburse the worker for all accrued wages during the period of suspension.
4. A worker who is persistently late or absent without leave or reasonable excuse, or who behaves in a manner which impedes production, may be reported to the employment service. The employment service can prosecute the worker and courts may impose fine or jail penalties.

To advise the employment service on labor requirements of the laundry industry as well as other retail and wholesale trades, special administrative machinery has been established. It includes: a national Central Advisory Panel of employer and trade union representatives to advise the Minister of Labour and National Service on manpower problems in retail and distributive trades, including laundries, and on methods of obtaining the release of workers for vital work in armament industry; regional panels or committees comprised of 4 representatives of employers, 4 trade union representatives, and the Regional Controller of the employment service as an independent chairman; and, on a local level, similarly constituted committees to deal with local manpower problems in retail trades, including laundries, and to advise the employment service on questions regarding compulsory transfer of labor to other essential industries or the conscription of labor for the armed forces.

Regulation of the Employer

Regulation of the industry controlled the price of consumer services. In September 1941 the price of civilian laundry services was regulated by the Board of Trade. Increase in prices above the September 1939 level was permitted only where there was a justifiable increase in operating costs. Mainly as a result of the increase in labor costs, operators in specified areas were permitted to increase their prices, but a maximum proportion of increase above the August 1939 price level was fixed for each area in which price increase was permitted. The actual amount of the price increase depended on the current price schedule in each community and generally did not amount to more than 30 percent. Later, early in 1943, a general increase of prices of 4.16 percent was permitted.

Increase in demand created by the arrival of the United States troops in 1942 induced the regulation of laundry prices for members of the armed forces. The Services (Maximum Charges) Order issued in October fixed standard prices for various sized bundles for each branch of the armed forces.

Regulation of the Consumer

Government regulation of laundry consumers accompanied the regulation of laundry labor. In 1941 the Board of Trade set up an Interdepartmental Advisory Committee representing all the Government departments interested in laundry services (representatives of the military forces, the Ministry of Health, and the Ministry of Supply) to keep it informed on all matters affecting laundry services and military laundry requirements. In the summer of 1942, more drastic steps were taken to insure provision of adequate laundry service for war workers and members of the armed forces.

In July the Laundry (Control) Order was issued. It empowered the Board of Trade to direct any laundry operator to accept or reject a specified article or class of articles; to restrict laundry services to a specified class of persons; and to provide the Board of Trade with such records and accounts as it might request. To administer this order the Board of Trade appointed a Director and Deputy Director of Laundry Services whose function it is to allocate laundry capacity between members of the armed forces and the civilian population and, if necessary, to restrict civilian use of laundries in specific areas. Since the laundry problem was considered a local and not a national one, regional officers of the Board of Trade, responsible to the national Director of Laundry Services and in close touch with local laundry problems, were given wide powers in regard to application of the order and formulation of regulations.

Laundry services available to the consumer were also restricted by regulations designed to conserve gasoline and tires; this required simultaneous deliveries and collections once a week or every 10 days.

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CAREFUL ANALYSIS AND SELECTION ARE THE—

Prelude To "Older" Placements

• • • *By*
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A FEW YEARS AGO, unemployed "older workers" were men who had reached the age of 40 who were barred from jobs because of arbitrary age restrictions. Today, however, age barriers are being broken down, and men of 50, 60, and even 70 are being employed in large numbers. Placement of applicants in these age groups must take account not only of employer resistance, but also of many real problems characteristic of "oldsters."

Successful placement of the older man comes only as a result of careful analysis and selection on the part of the placement officer. An older man in a well-selected job is almost always a valuable production unit. The significant elements in the placement of older workers must not be overlooked if a valuable job is to be done.

First, does he actually want a job? Occasionally, an "oldster," particularly one in his seventies, is out looking for amusement and drops into the USES office just to see what luck he might have with no idea of taking a job. The wise placement officer learns to discriminate between those who are placeable material and those who are just having a little fling.

Does his family know he is job hunting? The older man, like the minor, is subject to supervision. It must not be overlooked that families feel a strong responsibility for their "old folks" which is often unwisely restricting. It is expensive and unfortunate to place a man only to have his family step in and make him give up the job because, "We don't want papa working at his age," "We don't want him to leave mother alone," "It's too far from home," or a number of other reasons they may present.

Health is a prime factor in considering the older man. Is he physically able to undertake the job and will his nervous system endure the strain of a full day's work?

The element of fear must not be overlooked. A man who has not worked for some time or has been working in a sheltered environment such as a WPA project will have a timidity of which he may not be conscious. Many times a man is credited with not wanting a job and is dismissed with a disgusted shrug when actually his attitude may be due to lost faith in his ability to compete with others. Frequently, it takes several interviews to condition such a man to the idea of accepting a job, and more before a satisfactory job adjustment is made.

For example, there was the case of Mr. V. He was 68, and although a college graduate of ability, he failed to stir himself out of the comfortable rut of his WPA job. He visited the USES regularly and chatted engagingly about how much he would like to have a job. Always his visits ended with the same old remark. "No one wants an old codger like me," he'd say in a gay tone, and leave, feeling secure and tremendously pleased with himself. One day he was quizzed rather carefully about the type of work he would accept. A job with just his specifications was offered to him. His gay attitude of resignation this time failed him. He'd think it over, he said, and come back. Sure enough he turned up, but when he found the job was still available, he began to hedge. The interviewer, sensing his resistance, said firmly, but gently, "Mr. V., I believe you are afraid to take a job. You want to stay on the WPA." Mr. V.'s pride forced him to accept the challenge, but he lost the job after 3 weeks. He couldn't get along with his boss. Before he was sent to the next job, he was warned that getting along with his fellow workers was as much a part of his job as the actual work. For the past 10 months Mr. V. has been working steadily, making a good salary, and producing a fine record.

Suitability (including the applicant's own idea of suitability) must not be overlooked. Frequently, older men, anxious to get work, are willing to take "anything." Were they taken at their word and sent out indiscriminately, sad results would follow.

An illustration of this is the instance of the unfortunate placement of an ex-salesman in a dull routine job. Unaccustomed to close supervision, he divined great wickedness in his superiors, made himself generally unhappy, and stuck it out only a week.

On the other hand, there was the 78-year-old retired fire chief. He wanted to "get into things" so he took a 4-month machine-shop course. He over-

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OCCUPATIONAL ADJUSTMENT UNCOVERS A LABOR RESERVE BY—

Leaving No Stone Unturned

. . . *By*

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WITH unfilled job orders popping up every day and with our regular sources of labor supply all but vanished, the USES for Connecticut is now turning to several groups of workers which, although each is small, amount to a sizable labor pool in the aggregate: physically handicapped, older workers, aliens, American citizens who do not have birth certificates, persons with mental deficiencies, parolees, ex-prisoners, men in Class I–A, and women who are visiting their husbands at army camps. Such workers require occupational adjustment before placement; we have therefore established a program offering specialized occupational and placement service to these groups.

For the past several years we have had a special service for the physically handicapped which, during 1942, placed approximately 3,500 physically disabled workers. Occupational adjustment is an expansion of this service. It provides the widest possible application of the facilities of the USES for Connecticut to all classes of workers so that their abilities and skills may be fully utilized.

Our plan integrates the program of occupational adjustment with all other USES functions. It provides for an administrative assistant at the State level who is responsible for the technical development and standardization of operating methods and procedures for occupational adjustment on a Statewide basis.

In each of the 18 local USES offices throughout Connecticut, there is at least one special interviewer who is either primarily or totally concerned with the program of occupational adjustment at the local level. Known as the occupational adjustment interviewer, he is responsible for the occupational adjustment of applicants referred to him for special service. This service includes adjustment, occupational classification, and consultation regarding placement.

The occupational adjustment interviewer studies employment problems of applicants referred to him, plans and initiates action to classify occupationally and place selectively such applicants, continuously develops job opportunities for occupationally adjusted applicants available for work, and enlists the aid of all agencies equipped to assist him.

Since no line of demarcation can be established indicating applicants in need of occupational adjustment through special service, all interviewers in the local office use their own judgment as to whom they are to refer to the occupational adjustment interviewer, keeping in mind the definition of such applicants and the need for special service. We define an applicant in need of occupational adjustment as "any applicant who presents a problem in classification or placement which requires prereferral adjustment and/or selective placement through special efforts."

If an interviewer decides that the applicant is covered by this definition, arrangements are made for another interview by the occupational adjustment interviewer. The application record is turned over to the occupational adjustment interviewer, who reviews the case to confirm the applicant's need for special service. Adjustment service is governed by two considerations: (1) the applicant's need for special service in solving his employment problem, and (2) his ability to profit from such service. Once the employment problem is confirmed as one requiring special service, the occupational adjustment interviewer prepares an adjustment record card for the individual. He studies the problem impeding referral and plans a course of action designed to make the applicant available for a range of jobs within his capacity. This may require use of the facilities of other agencies as well as those of the USES.

Older workers are frequently referred to the occupational adjustment interviewer, particularly if they are unskilled. One of our offices, after carefully planned action on the part of the occupational adjustment interviewer, placed a man 80 years of age. The applicant had been a salesman, but he was carefully evaluated on the basis of factors other than work experience, and a job for which he was qualified was found with an employer doing post-war research. Another spry, active, and able gentleman of 85 was placed in a job whose requirements he met 100 percent.

Many aliens are difficult to place. Before an employer engaged in so-called "secret work" can hire

an alien, he must obtain permission from the War Department. The complicated and time-consuming procedures to be followed in obtaining this consent at times discourages employers, and they therefore make birth certificates an arbitrary requirement for all prospective employees. This tends to exclude aliens from jobs. In these cases we help the alien applicant fill out the questionnaire which assists the employer in obtaining the necessary consent.

Other workers cannot be referred to jobs in war plants because of their inability to supply proof of American birth. Some towns and counties supply birth certificates for individuals born within their jurisdiction, but frequently the information is not available. Occupational adjustment interviewers are familiar with the various types of identifying data and the sources and procedures for securing data proving American birth. Where the information is not available, they first attempt to get the employer to accept a declaration of citizenship. If this does not succeed, the interviewers help the applicant to get his birth record from his native State.

If the State has no record, the occupational adjustment interviewer suggests such sources as family bible record, hospital record, baptismal or other church record, and other types of acceptable evidence. He will then guide the applicant in requesting the proper State officials to issue a delayed certificate of birth in accordance with adopted national procedures.

Some Require Individual Handling

While cases of the type just mentioned can be handled through established procedures, others require individual handling. For example, one young man was referred to the occupational adjustment interviewer because he appeared to have an unusually low mentality, the result of a brain injury suffered during childhood. Through various interviewing techniques, this applicant was found to be qualified for elemental work of a noncompetitive nature. He was strong and could have done heavy manual work, except for a foot impairment. The physical problem was discussed with a rehabilitation agency, which furnished the applicant with specially fitted shoes. The man was subsequently placed by the USES as a yard laborer with a war employer.

While this applicant presented both a mental and a physical problem, others have a combination of several problems which make placement extremely difficult. They are the acid test of occupational adjustment. One job seeker of this type was referred to the occupational adjustment interviewer because he was an unskilled, 68-year-old alien with a history of tuberculosis. This man presented four problems: (1) no qualifying work experience, (2) age, (3) citizenship, and (4) a physical handicap. A medical report indicated that the case was arrested tuberculosis and that the applicant could safely work 8 hours a day. He was placed as a gate tender with a war employer.

If the problem requiring occupational adjustment is previous hospitalization in a mental institution, no attempt at placement is made until guiding information is obtained from the State hospital regarding the applicant's work possibilities or limitations. Our experiences with this type of applicant have been few, but successful. Placement is attempted only after a careful analysis of the applicant's qualifications.

A former manufacturer of small tools and dies who had been confined for 18 years in one of Connecticut's mental institutions was placed recently by the USES as a toolmaker. Sudden reverses following World War I had caused the man to break down mentally to the point where hospitalization was necessary, and it was only recently that the hospital instituted a program of work therapy through which the patient was furnished with machine-shop equipment. He could perform the duties of toolmaker, but the hospital advised against more than a minimum of supervision. The patient was a skilled worker, but he would not tolerate supervision over and above that which was absolutely necessary. An opportunity was developed by the occupational adjustment interviewer with a war employer who could use the man's skill to good advantage. The foreman of the department was instructed by the employer to set this worker apart from the others, provide him with blueprints of the work to be done, and then put him on his own. Upon completing each job, he is given another blueprint with instructions as to what is wanted. This former mental patient is working out so well that his employer intends to keep him as long as he wishes to stay—even after the war.

Parolees and ex-prisoners often require special assistance through occupational adjustment. In Danbury the occupational adjustment interviewer visits the Federal correctional institution in that area when requested and interviews those prospective parolees who wish to work in Connecticut. Occupational adjustment interviewers in other parts of the State where the manpower shortage is acute are furnished with this information. Employers are visited and jobs are developed—specific jobs to be

filled by these applicants upon release. This is especially difficult since it is necessary for the occupational adjustment interviewer to sell the applicant's qualifications to an employer sight unseen.

One prisoner wrote to the USES and suggested that because of good behavior his chances for parole might be favorable if his services could be used in war production. The occupational adjustment interviewer found the man's employment record on file and noted that he was an experienced foundry worker. Further, the man's former employer in that area had recently called the USES for a worker with that same qualifying experience—a skill that was nowhere to be found. The interviewer immediately communicated with the employer, who stated that he would hire the man under any conditions. A subsequent call to the parole officer at the prison, explaining the great need for the prisoner's skill in war production, resulted in parole and placement of the applicant.

Men who have been classified I–A by Selective Service are also referred for special assistance. The interval between being dubbed I–A and induction is too frequently a short period of enforced idleness, with few employers being willing to bother with such temporary help. Presenting the same problem are service wives—women who travel with their soldier husbands from post to post. One area of the USES was experiencing a great deal of difficulty in the placement of these women. Most of them wanted employment for the short period of time they were available, but employers, as in the case of I–A men, were reluctant to hire them. Because of their problem in placement, many of these applicants were referred to the occupational adjustment interviewer. He located an essential employer who was having a difficult time maintaining production because of a high labor turn-over which was due to his inability to compete with the prevailing wage rates. The occupational adjustment interviewer persuaded him to use service wives. Other employers experiencing the same difficulty were convinced by the success of this employer, with the result that this source of labor is no longer going to waste.

The program of occupational adjustment first went into State-wide operation about the middle of March 1943. Our reports for April, after 45 days of operation, indicate that there were 188 cases pending adjustment, 575 occupationally adjusted applicants available for selective placement, and 783 placements.

Of this latter number, 551 were physically handicapped, 38 older workers, 27 aliens and persons unable to prove American birth, 28 of low mentality, 30 parolees and persons with prison records, 8 former inmates of mental hospitals, 48 draft eligible men and service wives, and 53 presented other employment problems making occupational adjustment necessary before placement could be effected. In addition, 817 physically handicapped were placed through the regular facilities of the offices since their problems were not sufficiently complex to require special service.

With the cooperation of all agencies equipped to assist in occupational adjustment, there is no good reason why this vast reservoir of potential workers cannot be used with gain to the individual and with profit to the country. Today no source of labor is so small that it can be overlooked, and war production needs everyone who is willing to work. While the USES is fighting desperately to stave off an acute labor shortage in Connecticut, it is not forgetting the day when occupational adjustment will be an extremely valuable procedure for placing returning veterans.

(Continued from page 9)

To compensate the consumer for the inadequacy of available services, the Government provided public wash houses where housewives could wash, dry, and air heavy household articles. The Ministry of Health also provided "mobile laundries," which consisted of a washing machine mounted on a truck and generating its own power. No more than 15 garments per person could be washed under this system.

The manpower problem in the British laundry industry thus exemplifies the difficulty that a low-wage industry encounters when it tries to hold on to its personnel in the face of the attractions of much higher wages in war production. The British experience also drives home the lesson that failure to recognize the essentiality of laundry service by imposition of timely manpower controls and regulations will inevitably lead to such a depleted state of its labor supply that a break-down in essential services to consumers is bound to follow.

In connection with the British experience, it is worthy of note that the Minister of Labour and National Service did not permit workers to be "frozen" in their jobs until laundry wage rates were brought in line with wage rates in comparable fields of work. Nor were laundry operators allowed to pass on to the consumer more than a reasonable proportion of the wage increases, even though labor costs comprise a major portion of operating overhead. Moreover, the British Government did not fail to recognize the justice of compensating the less-essential laundry consumer for restrictions placed on his laundry privileges, by providing him with the convenience of public laundry facilities.

NECESSITY IS THE MOTHER OF A LABOR POOL

Harvest Hands From Prisons

• • • *By*

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LAST AUTUMN we in this local office felt that we had come to the end of our rope as far as filling agricultural labor orders was concerned. Migrants were few—far below the normal supply; some workers had been imported from Mexico; housewives, students, white-collar workers, boys, girls, and older workers had responded to our urgent calls—but still our supply was far short of the demand.

What to do? The ringing telephone held the answer which we didn't yet know. It was the head of the Women's Industrial Division of the San Francisco office, on the wire to tell us that she had just been talking to one of the officials of a large California State prison and the idea occurred to her that we might be able to use some prisoners to solve our harvest problem.

We thought for a moment of the social and physical problems involved in the use of such labor. Farmers had never before used prison labor in San Joaquin County. Would they do it now? What restrictions would the prison authorities throw around the use of the men? Would the rules be so restrictive as to make the prisoners of little use to the farmers? What would be the reaction of our regular labor force?

In desperation we decided to take a chance. We called the Inspector of Camps for the California State Board of Prison Directors, who covered the Chino, San Quentin, and Folsom prisons. He told us that a precedent existed for the use of prisoners through road camps established in cooperation with the California State Highway Division, and forestry camps established for work with the United States Forest Service and the Board of National Resources on fire prevention and fire supression work.

The Inspector investigated our problem, and the California State Prison Board, after reclassifying the inmates of the three penal institutions (San Quentin, Folsom, and Chino), decided to extend to the inmates who had good work records and who were agreeable to a rehabilitation program a temporary conditional parole which would give them the same status as free men while at daytime work on the ranches. At night, however, they were under the control of the prison supervisor and were honor-bound to keep within established camp limits. The prison administrators were aware of the fact that these men could not be exploited by private industries if they were paid wages equal to those paid free men for the same kind of work. Used on this basis, prison labor would compete with free labor and would avoid any criticism that might be expected from that source.

The Delta regions of San Joaquin County were admirably situated for camps of this character, being somewhat isolated and having the physical facilities for the establishment of camps which would meet the requirement of prison authorities. The first temporary harvest camp was therefore established in our county.

During the season, 6 groups of 40 men each were sent from San Quentin to various camps which were operated in conformity with the rules of the California State Bureau of Housing and Immigration. Each group was sent out under the custody of an unarmed supervisor who had full jurisdiction over the making of camp rulings, maintaining discipline, and overseeing the general welfare of the men. These supervisors were appointed by the warden of San Quentin prison. In addition, three camps were established under supervisors appointed by the warden of the State prison at Folsom. The employing farmers had met their end of the problem by agreeing to minimum conditions of employment, housing, and wages, predetermined by them and the prison authorities through the inspector. The USES handled negotiations with the farmers.

The experiment of these temporary harvest camps was particularly interesting where inmates from Folsom prison were used. These men had been incarcerated for many years, and when they were assigned to camps, most of them became very efficient workers, taking a new interest in life. In addition, some of these men were heads of families, and in many instances there were five or six members in the family who had been obtaining assistance from the State or County charities. The earnings of these men went to assist their families, thereby removing a burden from the State and Counties.

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Coding The Manning Table

. . . *By*

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THE MANNING TABLE is the War Manpower Commission's answer to the question, "How are the millions of young men who are needed by the armed forces to be separated from industry without upsetting and disorganizing essential production schedules?" Through the Manning Table an employer puts his entire staffing problem on paper by listing every job in his plant, the number of workers on the job, and the number to be required during the period. Analysis of the table often reveals opportunities for job breakdowns, transfers of skill, job dilution, upgrading, and better utilization of available labor. The Replacement Schedule which is appended to the Manning Table allows an employer to plan the orderly withdrawal of those of his labor force who are subject to the draft and thus to budget the time necessary to train replacements. The whole program permits an employer to adjust his business to the draft instead of trusting to blind luck that deferments will be granted or hoping that key workers will be rejected by the army entrance tests.

In the course of completing the Manning Table, it is necessary for an employer to identify each job by the title used in his establishment and also to record the equivalent job title and code according to the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. Employers have been urged to seek assistance in this task from local United States Employment Service offices.

Members of the local office staff who have been assigned to assist employers with Manning Tables must, as a basic requirement, be absolutely familiar with the *Dictionary*, Parts I and II and the supplement. They need not know every definition, but should be acquainted with the various sections, the purpose of each section, and the theory underlying the arrangement. A thorough knowledge of the *Dictionary* is necessary not only to accomplish the coding job, but also to give the employer a favorable impression of USES methods and efficiency.

The *Dictionary* is the interviewer's tried and trusted friend and as such merits an enthusiastic introduction to a new user. Most employers will appreciate some brief explanation of the "book that went to war," since they may have read about it or heard about it vaguely.

Part I should be explained in the course of an employer interview, showing how the book is like any dictionary, arranged in alphabetical order according to the job titles. The interviewer might illustrate the use of the book by opening it at random and selecting a job definition. The explanation should cover the meaning of the titles in small letters which follow the job title, the significance of the industrial designation which appears in parenthesis, and the code number used on the Manning Table.

If the employer's Manning Table is long, it might be advisable to demonstrate the purpose and use of Part II and by turning to page IX, "Major Occupational Groups and Divisions," make sure that the employer understands the meaning of every first digit from 0 through 9. Many employers will want to take a sheet of paper and jot down a brief of the classification structure.

If the Manning Table is short, it might be better to explain to the employer the use of Part I only, proceed to the coding of his Manning Table, and then return to Part II, page IX. When the employer understands the importance of the first digit, the suggestion might be made that he check back over his Manning Table to see whether he is satisfied with the weight of skill assigned to each code number.

The employer may challenge the degree of skill assigned to some job definition on his Manning Table. Such a challenge should be welcomed as it is evidence that the employer understands the significance of the first-digit codes. For instance, in a group of Machine Molders on the Manning Table:

Machine Molder, Squeeze 4–81.050
Machine Molder, Roll-Over 4–81.010
Machine Molder, Jarring 6–81.010

The employer takes exception to the first digit 6 assigned to a Machine Molder, Jarring. He believes that that work is skilled and warrants a 4. What's the procedure?

The interviewer will ask him to enter on the Manning Table the job title and the code number, as they appear in the *Dictionary*. Beside the code number he

will insert a capital S in parenthesis, in order to flag the reviewer of the Table to look for a supplemental sheet. On a separate sheet an explanation is made as to why the employer does not concur with the degree of skill assigned to that particular job.

Employers should also be informed of the significance of such terms as main job title, alternate titles, industrial designation, code number, and definition of duties.

At this point, it is in order to turn to page 1117, Occupational Titles Arranged by Industry. If the employer has talked freely at the beginning of the interview about the products manufactured, it will be easy to turn to the industry definition which describes the company's activities. If the employer did not give sufficient information about his industry, then this is the logical time to question him.

If the employer is operating a foundry, the interviewer will turn to page 1187, where he will find that the definition of "foundry" has been revised in the supplement. This fact affords a natural transition from Part I to the supplement and gives an opportunity to point out that Part I "as it now stands is thought of as but a first edition," that additions and revisions are constantly being made, as the supplement indicates.

The employer should be asked to read the definition of the foundry industry as given on page 605 of the supplement in order to find out whether the definition fits with the description of his industry. If he is not satisfied with the definition, then it will be necessary to question him in greater detail and to search further until a definition is found which he can accept.

Assuming that he accepts the definition of the foundry industry, the interviewer will turn back again to page 1187 and show him the list of occupations arranged for his industry. The interviewer has completed temporarily the introduction and explanation of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* and is ready to go to work on the coding.

The interviewer might check in Part I the code numbers assigned to Laborer; Laborer, Process; and Foreman II for the foundry industry and write them down in large figures on a slip of paper:

Laborer	9–65.02
Laborer, Process	8–82.10
Foreman II	5–92.311

This is a time-saver when definitions are found which are acceptable to the employer and which begin with the words "a laborer" etc. Thus, by finding the pages on which appear the code numbers for Laborer and Laborer, Process in Part II and inserting bookmarks, the interviewer can find the correct title for "a laborer" quickly and show the employer the pertinent list.

It is possible that an employer may have a laboring job for which a job definition cannot be found by searching the listing of Laborer or Laborer, Process under 9–65.02 and under 8–82.10, or by looking on page 1125 (Any Industry), and every name by which the job could be known has been thought of and checked both in Part I and the supplement without success. It is then necessary to determine whether the work comes under the heading of Laborer or of Laborer, Process. Then in column 2 the employer will write the word Laborer (or Laborer, Process) and in parentheses next to it he will write the plant job title. In column 3 the code number of Laborer (or Laborer, Process) is inserted preceded by a capital S in parentheses. The employer must then write a detailed description of this particular job.

Sometimes in coding a Manning Table a definition is found which describes the duties of an employee quite accurately but the industrial designation is that for another industry. Can the title and code number be used for a job in the foundry business? Yes; because an industrial designation is indicative only and does not restrict the job to the industry mentioned.

In general, it may be said that the *Dictionary* defines those occupations in which *numbers* of people are employed. Many times an interviewer will find instances where an employee has been with a concern over a period of years. He has developed abilities and interests at a tangent to the job for which he was originally hired, and is responsible for special duties which are not found in any one definition. The employer is not satisfied with any definition which is suggested. Should the employer be encouraged to stretch a point and take what comes the closest to his requirements? Emphatically not. It is not advisable to *force* conversions to *Dictionary* titles. This is a clear case where a job description is in order.

The employer should be instructed to leave blank column 2 and in column 3 insert *only* a capital S in parentheses. On a supplemental sheet he will write a job description. At this point he may turn and ask what constitutes a good job description. Applied to his job description, questions like the following will help to organize the analysis of an employee's duties: (1) what is the worker doing? (2) how is he doing it? (3) with what is he doing it? (4) why is he doing it?

(5) what important skills are involved? (6) what material is he using? (7) what is the worker's degree of responsibility?

The employer's establishment is broken down into departments, each of which has a corps of workers who are engaged in a variety of occupations concerned with a step in the processing of the raw material. Each department has a head man who hires and fires, trains and inspects, and maintains harmony among the workers. He is a Foreman II as defined on page 382 of Part I. So, he is coded as 5–92.311 (according to the industry in which the work occurs). On the night shifts there are men who do practically the same work except that their responsibility is not so great. They are really assistants to the Foreman II. In column 2 the employer will designate them as Assistant Foreman II and in column 3 they carry the code number 5–92.311.

Next, the employer asks about a group leader over a number of unskilled workers. The definition of Straw Boss on page 901 is shown to him and he agrees to it but asks, "How do we put him on the Manning Table?" Since the worker supervises and works with Casting Polishers, the employer will enter him as:

Column 2	*Column 3*
Casting Polisher (Straw Boss)	8–82.10

In his departments there may be highly skilled craftsmen who direct the work of craftsmen engaged in just one skill. These are examples of the craft in which they are proficient. When you encounter a craft for which no Foreman I has been set up in the *Dictionary*, for example, a Coremaker I, the solution is:

Column 2	*Column 3*
Coremaker (I) (Foreman)	4–82.010

When coding the office personnel, the interviewer will remember the definition of a Supervisor III on page 341 of the supplement: "Supervises a group of workers engaged chiefly in one general type of clerical function . . . Must be proficient in the particular type of clerical work in which he functions. Specifically designated according to the group of workers he supervises, as Filing Supervisor, Head Bookkeeper, or Chief Cashier. Classifications are made and code numbers are assigned according to the type of work supervised." This definition is very similar to that of a Foreman I. The definition and the coding are similar except that Foreman I refers to a craft while Supervisor III refers to a clerical function.

In every manufacturing plant there are inspectors—skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled. Sometimes their functions in industry are described under Checker, sometimes under Tester, sometimes Examiner, and frequently under Inspector. By and large, if the employer is asked, "*What* are they inspecting?" or "*Why* are they inspecting?" a clue will be found to the title in the *Dictionary*. For example, under Foundry Occupations, N. E. C., Part II, page 84, "Miscellaneous Foundry Occupations," is found:

4–82. 910 . . . . . Inspector, Chief I (found.) salvager.

It's the only mention made of an inspector. Under the Semiskilled Occupations on page 197 there is no provision for Inspectors, but upon examining the titles under each subheading, the following are found:

6–82. 210 . . . . . Core Checker (found.) core inspector.
6–82. 920 . . . . . Casting Inspector (found.)
6–82. 970 . . . . . Mold Checker (found.)

The first word in each title answers the question, "What is he inspecting?" Two of the titles carry the name Checker. If there is a doubt that a Checker is an Inspector, open Part I to page 233 and read the definition: "CORE CHECKER; core inspector (found.) 6–82.210. Checks dimensions and shapes of cores against blueprints or specifications, using gages, calipers, or other measuring devices . . ." The definition of Mold Checker, page 605, reads: "MOLD CHECKER (found.) 6–82.970. Inspects the various sections of molds before they are assembled for pouring . . ."

In the foundry industry there are no Inspectors among the Laborers, but just to prove that Inspectors may be found under Laborers' codes in other industries, turn to Part II:

Page	*Code Number*	*Description*
242	8–02.10	Cracker Inspector.
245	8–04.10	Cap Inspector.
249	8–08.31	Filled-Can Inspector.
252	8–12.10	Flat-Fifties Checker.

For further assistance in coding Inspectors, pages 476 in Part I and pages 176 through 181 in the supplement are very helpful. Here the reader will find the title Inspector followed by an industrial designation and will note that Inspectors may be found in all three grades of skill.

One purpose of the Manning Table is to remind employers of the need for training workers to replace the skilled men subject to the draft and to give them time to complete that training. Hence, the interviewer is likely to find in each department a few workers who have been titled "Trainees." The problem is

to find out from the employer whether they come within the definition of:

Apprentice I . . . . . page 16, Part I.
Helper III . . . . . page 450, Part I.
Learner . . . . . page 208, supplement.

Just to be sure that the interviewer and the employer speak the same language, it would be well to ask the employer to read these three definitions before the coding of Trainees is started. The interviewer knows from registration and placement experience how to code Apprentice I and Helper III, but Learner is a new term. For instance, the employer has a worker who is learning to be a Core Paster. He is indicated on the Manning Table by means of the code number of the job he is learning, but with a capital L preceding the code:

Column 2	*Column 3*
Core Paster (Learner)	*L6–82.060.*

Sometimes only part of a definition is satisfactory to the employer and more than one definition is necessary. An employer may state of a particular definition, "That covers part of his work, but he has another job, too." What to do? Take the *Dictionary* title and code number for that part of the man's work and instruct the employer to insert them on his Manning Table. Now, question him about the other part of the job and locate the pertinent *Dictionary* title. *Use both Dictionary* titles and code numbers on the one plant job title. Use more than two, if necessary, to describe the complete job to the employer's satisfaction.

There may be instances where a definition may describe the duties all right, but the employer says that the worker does not use the tools, or the machinery, or the materials specified by the *Dictionary*. Does that make a significant difference? In that instance, how important are the tools, the machinery, or the materials with relation to the duties?

Let the employer weigh that thought and express his own opinion. If he feels that such differences are insignificant, it is in order to use the *Dictionary* title and code number. On the other hand, if he believes that such differences are important and that the definition is not acceptable without the inclusion of the specific tools or machinery or materials, then a job description is in order. As has been pointed out before, *do not force conversions.*

Where one definition covers two or more plant job stitle, the *Dictionary* title should be used, followed by the plant job title in parentheses. The code number should be preceded by a capital S in parentheses, and on a supplemental sheet the employer should explain the break-down of the *Dictionary* definition as it applies to his plant.

The above are only a few suggestions which may be of value to interviewers when assisting employers with Manning Tables. Needless to say, this represents an ideal opportunity to foster employer relationships. The local office not only can assist in the mechanics of coding the Manning Table, but may be able to make suggestions to employers regarding such problems as recruitment, labor utilization, and labor supply. By means of contacts achieved through the Manning Table, we are demonstrating to the employer our understanding of personnel problems, advantages of long-range planning, and scope of service for which the USES stands prepared.

(*Continued from page 10*)

looked the fact that men don't become machine-shop foremen at once and was furious when offered a job on a lathe. He could handle men, and that was what he wanted. Then he was transferred to tool-room man in a machine shop. The machine-shop training gave him a knowledge of tools, and the job offered a satisfying opportunity for him to exercise his ability to keep things running. He is doing a splendid job.

Placing the older man with definite skills presents few problems, but the unskilled man or the man whose skills are rusty, perhaps lost, is more difficult to manage. Care must be taken to find a job as closely related to his former skills as possible. For example, we had a man of 65 who had spent many years of his youth in a machine shop but had wandered over the countryside in recent years supporting himself by odd jobs of gardening and household work. He couldn't start right in as an operator, but he could fill an oiler's job, and as such he was placed. He has stopped his roaming and is steady, reliable, and happy on the job.

In the whole program, the protection of the worker must be kept in mind; this, in turn, protects the employer. It is well to advise the employer that his new employee may take longer to break in on the job. While it does not always follow that an older worker is slower to adjust, an employer forewarned is either more patient or pleasantly surprised.

The Special Service Unit of the Baltimore office of the USES, which handles those applicants who cannot compete in the normal placement procedures, roughly estimates that two-thirds of its placements are men over 50. Many of these older men also have a physical impairment. Yet the demand for them increases because they are steady, draft-exempt, dependable, and capable. They are holding their own in war plants as material checkers, stockroom men, and clerks. They are releasing younger men for more strenuous jobs by working in hotels, laundries, theaters, stores, etc.

On LOCAL OFFICE FRONTS

PART-TIMERS SHORT CIRCUIT LABOR SHORTAGE

TO SAY that some months ago a local foundry was "foundering" may be a bad pun, but it is a true statement nevertheless. War production schedules were not being met; workers were putting in 12 to 17 hours per day; production was slumping alarmingly; and demurrage charges were multiplying as loaded freight cars arrived and stood idle for want of workers to empty them. Although a necessary minimum of skilled help was on hand, the plant needed an additional full-time force of at least 25 workers.

To recruit this force, the foundry relaxed its physical and citizenship requirements and eliminated age restrictions. The local USES office searched its files and occupational questionnaires and advertised by newspaper and billboard (there is no radio station in the locality). Clearance was not feasible because of the low wage rates in the industry for unskilled labor, which are, however, average for this area. Consequently, turn-over increased, the work force decreased, and the backlog of war orders piled up.

We then broached the possibility of part-time workers. The employer readily agreed, and after discussing shift schedules, possible sources of workers, etc., we began the recruitment drive. We discovered that although there were several part-time applicants, most part-time help would have to come from those who were already employed and not registered with the local office.

At our suggestion the employer ran a classified ad in the Sunday edition of the local newspaper. The ad stressed that a local industry, engaged in war work, needed help urgently; that anyone willing and able to work would be considered for several different types of job in the plant; and that workers would be hired for from 2 hours to a full day, with a choice of working hours from 5 a. m. to midnight. It also stated that the USES office would remain open an extra hour and a half to accommodate those who could not appear during our regular office hours.

The response was excellent, and 45 referrals were made in the next few days. Although several of the applicants were students seeking after-school work, the majority were adults who were holding full-time jobs: retail store employees, attendants from a United States veterans' hospital, truck drivers, baker, Employment Security Division interviewer, express clerk, mail carrier, shipping clerks, and even a veterinarian.

Part-timers are now engaged in both unskilled and semiskilled jobs, in all types of work, and on both day and night shifts. Hours of work vary from 2 to 6 per day, the majority of part-timers working 4. These workers have been so steady and reliable that the employer, who had been forced to operate on a 5-day-week basis because of lack of manpower, is now planning to go back on the former 6-day-week basis.

The company believes that the key to its success with part-time workers is the flexibility of hours—the arranging of hours to suit the convenience of the worker. Another factor has been its policy of placing workers immediately, through use of a hiring agent who has the authority to place applicants at once. When workers are told to come back in a day or two, they believe that the need for them is not serious and are apt to shrug off the whole idea as another case of crying "wolf."

The important thing is that the employer is satisfied with the attitude and output of the part-timers and that war production schedules, once seriously in arrears, are now being met.—Joe H. Petty, *Senior Interviewer, USES, Marion, Ind.*

UTILIZING THE HIGH SCHOOL LABOR RESOURCE

EARLY in January 1943 a representative of the local office met with the superintendent of schools and the

guidance and placement director of the Bayonne public school system to iron out many of the petty differences which were obstructing the relationships between these agencies and thus clear the path for future cooperation. The successful outcome of this meeting was marked by two achievements:

1. A training program for machine-shop operators earmarked for the graduation class of the local high school. Students who were within 4 months of their eighteenth birthday (the legal age for work of this nature in the State) and who planned to enter the labor market after graduation were referred to the local technical high school for the war training course in machine-shop practice. Through this program 39 students were made available for war industry as engine-lathe operators, milling-machine operators, and other machine-shop occupations.

2. A mass placement undertaking for the graduation class of commercial students. Most of these graduates were lined up for placement in war industry office positions before the termination of the regular school year. In one instance, for example, 15 girls were selected at the school and referred to local Civil Service clerk-typist vacancies. The entire group was hired.

USES offices everywhere will undoubtedly find cooperation with school placement services to be highly advantageous. To overlook this opportunity is to deny the USES as an important source of manpower.—ROBERT D. WEITZ, *Supervisor of Recruitment, USES, Bayonne, N. J.*

CULTIVATING A WAR PLANT

ERECTING the buildings for the new war plant in Macon was just another job for the contractor, but staffing it with trained, efficient personnel was quite a different story. In fact, it was unique, since Macon had never before had such a plant and no one qualified to work in it.

When the Macon USES office was brought into the picture to assume responsibility for assuring training and recruiting the workers, it obtained the cooperation and facilities of the Macon VTWW Vocational School. In an intensive publicity campaign designed to find workers, which is still going on, the local office manager, assistant manager, and selected personnel addressed civic organization meetings, women's clubs, and the like, secured the wholehearted cooperation of the local newspapers and two local radio stations, wrote stories and articles, and made radio addresses. While all the publicity emphasized wages, working conditions, and the desirability of the work involved, greatest stress was placed on the patriotic opportunity to help win the war.

Recruitment for the plant was facilitated through a local stabilization program which was in effect a general agreement between various essential industries in the area not to hire persons unless they had been away from their previous employer a specified length of time. Adopted early in 1942, this local plan was effective up to the time the regional program superseded it. The plan resulted in the hiring of persons not formerly in the labor market and in the transfer of workers from less-essential to essential work.

During the past 52 weeks the local office has made referrals of between 200 and 250 workers per week. We have kept the plant well-staffed and are prepared to do so for as long as may be necessary.—ARTHUR BERND, *Jr. Interviewer, USES, Macon, Ga.*

SUCCINCT SUCCESS STORY

The Order: Inspectors—Government inspectors—for local war plant. Easy work, but it must be done.

The Problem: Where to get 'em?

The Solution: Ah!—We have it: local and nearby high school students, part time during school terms; full 8 hours during summer vacations. But, not enough; more inspectors are needed. Well, then, how about school teachers on vacation during the summer months? Sure, they are eager to help with the war work, so—presto!—they are now Government inspectors.

The Follow-up: Call to chief inspector a few days later. "Help?" says he, "I have enough now, thank you."—NORMA SCOTT, *Sr. Interviewer, USES, Woodstock, Ill.*

(Continued from page 14)

The entire program was so successful from the standpoint of the growers, prisoners, and prison authorities that, although the camps were established primarily for harvesting crops for the war effort, requests came in from farmers for camps on a continuous, year-round basis; and again the first permanent year-round camp was established in San Joaquin County. There are now five of these permanent camps operating. These workers participate in all types of work necessary for the operation of farms and ranches, including repair of buildings, tractor driving, maintenance of equipment, pruning, spraying, processing, and harvesting.

The zeal and energy displayed by these prisoners was invaluable in helping save crops in San Joaquin County during the fall season of 1942; the future seems to indicate not only an expansion of temporary harvest camps, but a continual growth of camps on a year-round basis, for various crops in San Joaquin County are in harvest 12 months of the year.

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1943

" . . . planning of the things to come . . . "

OF REAL SIGNIFICANCE to the United States Employment Service is the statement made by President Roosevelt in a radio message to the Nation on July 28, 1943. It reads:

★ ★ ★

"While concentrating on military victory, we are not neglecting the planning of the things to come, the freedoms which we know will make for more decency and greater justice throughout the world.

"Among many other things we are, today, laying plans for the return to civilian life of our gallant men and women in the armed services. They must not be demobilized into an environment of inflation and unemployment, to a place on a bread line or on a corner selling apples. We must, this time, have plans ready—instead of waiting to do a hasty, inefficient, and ill-considered job at the last moment.

"I have assured our men in the armed forces that the American people would not let them down when the war is won.

"Of course, the returning soldier and sailor and marine are a part of the problem of demobilizing the rest of the millions of Americans who have been working and living in a war economy since 1941. That larger objective of reconverting wartime America to a peacetime basis is one for which your Government is laying plans to be submitted to the Congress for action.

"But the members of the armed forces have been compelled to make greater economic sacrifice and every other kind of sacrifice than the rest of us, and are entitled to definite action to help take care of their special problems.

★ ★ ★

"The least to which they are entitled, it seems to me, is something like this:

"1. Mustering-out pay to every member of the armed forces and merchant marine when he or she is honorably discharged, large enough in each case to cover a reasonable period of time between his discharge and the finding of a new job.

"2. In case no job is found after diligent search, then unemployment insurance if the individual registers with the United States Employment Service.

"3. An opportunity for members of the armed services to get further education or trade training at the cost of their Government.

"4. Allowance of credit to all members of the armed forces, under unemployment compensation and Federal old-age and survivors' insurance, for their period of service. For these purposes they should be treated as if they had continued their employment in private industry.

"5. Improved and liberalized provisions for hospitalization, rehabilitation, and medical care of disabled members of the armed forces and merchant marine.

"6. Sufficient pensions for disabled members of the armed forces.

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"All our calculations for the future, however, must be based on clear understanding of the problems involved. And that can be gained only by straight thinking . . ."

OFFICE FOR EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT
WAR MANPOWER COMMISSION
PAUL V. MCNUTT, *Chairman*

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